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Colonial Trade of New York
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COLONIAL TRADE OF NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

BY
GUSTAVE A. KRAMER, A. B. 1905

THESIS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN HISTORY

IN THE
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I Colonial Trade of New Netherland.

1. Dutch West India Company.
2. Settlers, nationalities and population.
3. Economic resources.
4. Dutch trade.
5. English conquest and trade policy.
6. Political organization of New York and New Jersey.

Chapter II Colonial trade 1664-1713.

1. Indian trade.
2. Conditions affecting trade.
3. Colonial trade other than Indian.
 - A) New York.
 - a) Intercolonial.
 - b) Great Britain.
 - c) West Indies.
 - d) Holland.
 - B) New Jersey.

Chapter III Colonial Trade 1713- 1774.

1. Indian trade.
2. Conditions affecting trade.
3. Colonial trade other than Indian.
 - a) Intercolonial.
 - b) West India and other Islands.
 - c) Great Britain.
 - d) Ireland.
 - e) European Countries.
4. Volume of trade.
5. Conclusion.

CHAPTER I: THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

1. The first settlers of the United States.
2. The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.
3. The establishment of the first colonies.
4. The growth of the colonies.
5. The American Revolution.
6. The formation of the United States.
7. The development of the United States.

CHAPTER II: THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

1. The first settlers of the United States.
2. The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.
3. The establishment of the first colonies.
4. The growth of the colonies.

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- b) The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.
- c) The establishment of the first colonies.
- d) The growth of the colonies.

CHAPTER III: THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

1. The first settlers of the United States.
2. The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.
3. The establishment of the first colonies.
4. The growth of the colonies.
5. The American Revolution.
6. The formation of the United States.
7. The development of the United States.
8. The history of the United States.
9. The future of the United States.
10. The conclusion of the history of the United States.

COLONIAL TRADE OF NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY.

Introduction

The subject under consideration, like Gaul, is naturally divided into three parts or periods. The first period begins with the formation of the Dutch West India Company and extends thru the Dutch occupation of New Netherland. The second period extends from the conquest of New Netherland to the treaty of Utrecht. Which contained stipulations regarding the relations the English and the French were to sustain toward the Indians; that is, France recognized the English protectorate over the Five Nations, while the English accorded similar rights and privileges to the French with regard to Canadian Indians. The third period begins with the end of Queen Ann's War and extends to the close of the colonial period.

Chapter I. COLONIAL TRADE OF NEW NETHERLAND

The various Dutch enterprises in the New World and Western Africa had been carried on by individuals or small companies; as they had been attended by divers risks and dangers, it was found advantageous, in 1621, to merge them into the great Dutch West India Company, which was granted exclusive trading privileges over about two-thirds of the globe for a period of about twenty-four years. Its charter provided for a Governor and a Council, in which each of the cities subscribing to the capital stock had representatives, chosen indirectly from a list selected by the chief stockholders of each city. The Council was granted, by the States-General, large powers; it could declare war, or make peace, erect forts, establish

The first of the great principles of the American Revolution was the right of the people to alter or to abolish their government, and to institute a new one, when it was found to be destructive of the ends for which it was established. This principle was the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, and it was upon this principle that the American people have ever since acted. The second principle was the right of the people to be represented in their government. This principle was also the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, and it was upon this principle that the American people have ever since acted. The third principle was the right of the people to have a government of laws, and not of men. This principle was also the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, and it was upon this principle that the American people have ever since acted.

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garrisons, and appoint administrative and judicial officers. The States-General, however, reserved the right of assuming future control of the Company, received a share of the profits, and required a fee for renewal of the charter, which fees were frequently quite heavy. The Company's chief profits were derived from the African Slave trade, smuggling, privateering and piracy, rather than from true commercial enterprise.¹

Invested with such vast powers, political as well as commercial, the West India Company proceeded to establish a Dutch colony in the New World, which should in the future, it was hoped, yield most lucrative commercial advantages; since the attempts at settlement had convinced the Dutch of the natural resources of the country discovered by Henry Hudson in 1609 while in the employ of the Dutch East India Company.

The Company's policy was purely commercial. To realize its purpose it brought Dutch settlers to the Hudson river, whose fate depended on the fortunes or misfortunes of the West India Company. During the first seventeen years of the Company's corporate existence, settlements were established on both the Hudson and the Delaware rivers and Long Island. "All that the Company could claim to have done was, to have set on foot a movement for colonization, which had in it an element of vitality, a principle, though weak and torpid, of growth."²

The Company held tenaciously the privileges granted in its charter, without any generous regard for the advantages of its subjects. In June 1643, the complaints of the patroons, that freedom and privileges conceded five years before had not been observed

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I. 25-33.

2. Doyle :English Col. in Amer. IV p.11.

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by the Company, were brought before the States-General, and led to an extended inquiry. Four years later the States-General issued an article abolishing the monopoly which the Company had hitherto possessed over the trade of New Netherland, and throwing it open to all Dutch subjects with their allies and friends. Private persons might import and export in the Company's ships, paying a duty of 10 % on goods brought into the colony and 15 % on exports. But in as much as it was at the same time enacted that each colonist was to pledge himself voluntarily to submit to the regulations and commands of the Company's officers, the scanty privileges rested, after all, on a precarious basis.

2. After 1638 the Company's policy was more liberal towards its colonists. It "not only encouraged the emigration of substantial colonists from the Fatherland, but also attracted strangers from Virginia and New England"¹. Such was the trend of immigration that at the close of the Dutch regime the population consisted of Dutch, Walloons, French, Huguenots, Scotch, English, Quackers, and negro slaves. A heterogeneous aggregation of peoples, with different religious faiths, variously estimated from 7000² to 10,000³. These estimates do not include the negro slaves. It is a striking fact that in the original instrument defining the privileges of the patroons, the Company pledges itself to supply the settlers with negro slaves.

The large tracts of virgin soil afforded abundant opportunities for the colonists to engage in various agricultural pursuits. It was well adapted to the raising of all sorts of country produce such as rye, wheat, barley, peas, beans, ect. and cattle."⁴

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1. Brodhead: Hist. of N.Y. I p.289.
 2. Webster: Gen. Hist. of Commerce P. 159.
 3. Doyle: English Col. in Amer. IV P. 41.
 4v. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 246.

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Vol I	M	VI	18	2218	1969-06-20	.1
"C"	II	VI	18	2219	1969-06-20	.1
"D"	III	VI	18	2220	1969-06-20	.1

More-over, the timber of this climate was in great abundance. Later the English sent over several hundreds of Germans to work in the forests of New York to prepare timbers for the shipping trade and also to manufacture tar and pitch for the English ship-building industry.

The Dutch zealously encouraged the exploitation of the mineral resources of the colony. Copper was said to be discovered at Minnisisinck and a mountain of crystal between Manhattan and the South river.¹ It was not for them to develop the mineral industries, for their rule ended too soon.

4. The whole commercial prosperity of New Netherland hinged on the most perilous form of trade, trade with the Indians. On the part of the Dutch there was an unlimited demand for furs and pelts, on the side of the Indians an equally unlimited demand for guns, powder, lead, ornamental trinkets, and strong drink. The fur trade was the one means thru which the colony seemed in any way likely to repay its founders. Its only other productive industry was ship-building which thrived for a while. The Indian trade fluctuated, as they got on with the Dutch. For a time Indians flocked to New Amsterdam and Fort Orange to trade their furs for Dutch goods, clothing, guns, powder, lead, and liquor. In 1643 Governor Kieft exacted a contribution from the savages and otherwise showed indiscretion in dealing with the savages.² Consequently, a most cruel Indian war broke out and lasted for five years. During this time the savages scattered the defenseless inhabitants, murdered their wives and children, burned their houses, barns and crops, killed or destroyed their live stock. Naturally during this period of warfare the fur trade languished; neither party being in a mood to exchange commodities. When there is no outlet for the surplus commodities of a

1 Brodhead I 662.

2. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 297.

nation, there is no stimulus to commercial activity. The Indian was a much more industrious man when he could exchange his ware for such luxuries as the European trader could furnish him. Before 1664 friendly relations were again established; and the English inherited the friendship of the New York Indians from the Dutch.

The Dutch did not confine their trade to the Indians. A mutually advantageous trade sprang up between the neighboring European colonists, with Manhattan as a center. A trade existed between New Netherland and New England, when the latter's whole tonnage consisted of only a "bass-boat, shallop, and pinnoice" which was the beginning of a profitable trade between the two. The goods received from New England were manufactures from England and Holland,¹ for which the New Englanders received furs, mostly.

In 1658 the Canadian trade was thrown open to them, provided they would refrain from trading with the savages and from publicly exercising a religion contrary to the Roman". The merchants of New Netherland hastened to seize the opportunity to extend their commerce, a vessel was presently cleared for Quebec with a cargo upon which all duties were remitted in consideration of being the "first voyage" from Manhattan to Canada.

With Virginia communications were opened in 1660, looking toward an amicable settlement of the right of the Dutch to occupy New Netherland. The British authorities were not in favor of the colonists trading with the Dutch in New Netherland whom they regarded as intruders. The Directors, however, expressed in their correspondence with Virginia a desire to develop "a free and unshackled trade with that nation". The next year they and the Governor of Maryland jointly concluded a treaty with the Maryland Indians. At

which time the English proposed to deliver two or three thousand hogsheads of tobacco annually to the Dutch in return for negroes and merchandize.¹

Their trade with the West Indies was rather spasmodic, it seems. Provisions, timber, horses, and cattle, no sheep- for New Netherland had few sheep,² - cocoa, ginger, drygoods, sugars, and rum were the commodities exchanged. A comparatively large number of horses were raised in New Netherland, especially in New Jersey. In 1650 Governor Stuyvesant shipped twenty horses to the Barbadoes in a vessel that had belonged to the Danish Crown.

In regard to Brazil the States-General in 1648 says: "Individuals shall be at liberty to export to Brazil in their own ships, fish, flour, the country produce, the growth of that country and no other----- Ships from Brazil must not return with any cargo, but come directly hither. New Netherland can never be a source of profit until the population of our country be increased more than it has hitherto been, which can be effected by allowing them to export to Brazil in their own ships."³

Certain Dutch merchants petition the States-General in 1651, in which they affirm that " they have traded for upwards of twenty years to all the Caribbean Islands and to Virginia"⁴. This shows that the Dutch persistently traded with the Islands in the Atlantic.

The company was quite reluctant to consent to the solitations

1. Brodhead. I 697.
2. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 368.
3. Ibid. I 216.
4. Ibid. I 436.

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of the citizens of New Netherland to enter the foreign trade. Naturally, an extensive foreign trade would defeat the purpose for which the enterprise was started. In February 1659, the Company, however, consented that the New Netherlanders might try the "experiment" of a foreign trade with France, Spain, Italy, and the Caribbean Islands, and elsewhere, subject to the conditions that the vessels engaging in foreign trade should return either to Amsterdam or to New Netherland, and that furs should be exported to Holland alone. The New Netherlanders did not develop a European trade worth mentioning before 1664, except with the Mother country. Holland, of course was the source whence came supplies for the colonists and for the Indian trade; and Holland was the outlet for furs and peltries and material for ship-building.

On the whole the Dutch trade had many obstacles to surmount in its way to prosperity. The inhabitants were few and scattered, rendering defense against the Indians difficult. The independent jurisdiction of the patroons was a hindrance to any system of defense; and interfered with the commercial supremacy of the Company, interfering with its regulation of the Indian trade. The private traders imposed on the ignorance of the savages, and sold them munitions of war to the peril of the rest of the population.

Irregular trade was condemned by the Company. Governor Stuyvesant was the most vigilant to see that the Company's commands were obeyed. His activities to quash smuggling became so notorious that merchants, and traders did not come to New Amsterdam to settle, much less did the smuggler. In consequence of the rigorous enforcement of the trade regulations, trade did not increase in the ratio to the increase of population that it did in previous years after giving due consideration to the effects of the Indian war from

1643-48. When it came to contraband trade Governor Stuyvesant did not adhere so closely to the regulations which governed this sort of trade. He openly sent his agents to trade with the savages in these forbidden wares, declaring it was perfectly proper for him to do so as a representative of the Company. He owned a brewery, and dispensed liquor to the Indians against the rules of the Company.¹ All of these ~~insignificant~~ acts, though insignificant in themselves as they may seem, had a demoralizing influence on legitimate commercial enterprise.

The revenue collected varied of course, from year to year with the amount of trade, and with the rigidity with which the Company's commands were enforced. Governor Kieff collected about 16,000 gulden a year, and Governor Stuyvesant's revenue reached a-² 30,000 gulden.

5. While seemingly amicable commercial relations existed between the British American Colonies and New Netherland, yet England with a jealous eye looked askance at the commercial activities of the New Netherlanders. The English encroached more and more on the rights of the Dutch, until they conquered New Netherland in 1664. By the articles of capitulation, the Dutch were granted such privileges of trade for six months as they hitherto enjoyed.

Since New Netherland came under the control of England it is well to review briefly her Navigation Laws that affected her American Colonies. The Protectorate passed an Act in 1651, which was confirmed in the First Parliament of Charles II, 1660, which is commonly known as the "First Navigation Act". This Act contained a two-fold policy, that of protecting English and Colonial shipping

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 311-312.

2. Ibid . I 301.

and that of regulating the trade of the Colonies so that they might contribute to the benefit of the Mother-country. It provided, that no goods should be imported into England from the plantations, but in English ships or in ships built in such plantations, the master and three-fourths of the crew to be Englishmen, certain "enumerated goods" must be brought directly to England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, from the Colonial shipping point.¹ The number of "enumerated goods" was increases from time to time, at the time of the passage of this Act, they were "sugars, tobacco, cotton-wood, indigo, ginger, and fustica, of the growth, production or manufacture of any English plantation in America, Asia, or Africa".

In 1661 Parliament sanctioned the legislation of the preceding year relative to encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation; also restricting the exportation of sheep, wool, and wool-fells.² Two years later in 1663 another act was passed which provided that no commodities of the growth and manufacture of Europe should be imported into any British plantation without being "laden and shipped in England, Wales, or the town Berwick upon Tweed and in English built vessels" or which had certificates for as directed by Parliament.³

In one way or another these acts were systematically evaded, hence Parliament took up the subject again in 1672. The act passed provided that a part of the goods should be taken as an earnest, unless a bond be furnished that the goods mentioned in the act of 1660 be brought directly to England, Wales, or Berwick; it imposed a duty on the "enumerated goods", a portion of the goods should be

1. Statutes at Large VII 452-455.

2. Ibid. VIII 22, VII 498.

3. Ibid VIII 161.


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taken if the owner does not pay the duty on them.¹

In 1696 the British navigation laws and regulations were extended to the colonies, which gave the officers of the plantations power to visit and search ships, take entries, make seizures, etc. the same as customs officers of the realm.² Such was the British legislation on Colonial navigation down to the famous act of 1733, which will be considered in another connection.

As a matter of fact the navigation laws were, in some respects a positive advantage to the Colonies. The colonial ship-builders, colonial ship-owner, colonial ship-master, and colonial seamen were given a share in the monopoly of the carrying trade between the Mother-country and her colonies.

6. When New Netherland was conquered, it passed into the hands of the Duke of York, as Proprietor. He appointed a Governor, and drew up a code, which was proclaimed on the arrival of the Governor at New York, March 1, 1665; at a meeting of the deputies of Westchester and all the towns of Long Island.

The "Duke's Laws" were not a constitution, yet in several matters they defined constitutional relations. They invested the townships with certain rights. Each town was to choose from its own number eight overseers who were to choose a constable from their number. A Church was to be in every township, the majority to decide the denomination. Christians of whatsoever faith were to be free from persecution, yet it was a capital crime to deny the true God. Trade was not absolutely forbidden, but could be carried on only by securing a license from the Governor.³ This sort of government continued for nearly twenty years.

1. Statutes of the Realm V 793.

2. Ibid. VII 103.

3. Doyle English Cols. in Amer. IV 111-113.

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After repeated demands for representative government by the colonists, the Duke sent over Governor Dongan in 1683 with instructions to call an election of a representative Assembly, to be chosen by the freeholders.¹ The number of representatives was to be limited to eighteen. All acts passed by the Assembly and approved by the Governor and his Council became law, provisionally, depending on the approval of the Duke. The first proceeding of the Assembly was, to pass an act analogous to a Bill of Rights, called the "Charter of Liberties", which was intended to settle the future constitution of the Colony. In 1686, however, Dongan was commissioned as royal governor with express powers, to exercise full legislative as well as, executive power, in conjunction with the Council.²

Upon dismissal of Dongan in 1688 the whole of New York and New Jersey was annexed to New England with Andros as Governor.³ The work of legislation and taxation was entrusted to a council of forty-two, chosen from the whole province, but this arrangement was of short duration.

In 1689 William and Mary came to the throne, who appointed Col. Sloughter Governor of New York, with a commission which was virtually a constitution. It reproduced the system that obtained before the attempted consolidation under Andros.⁴

The Duke of York granted, June 1664, the tract of land between the Hudson and the Delaware rivers to Sir John Berkely and Sir George Corteret, both of whom were joint proprietors in the Carolina's. Whether or not the grant transferred political sovereignty to the

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. III 331-334

2. Ibid. III 378.

3. Ibid III 537-549.

4. Doyle: English Col. in Amer. IV 213.

to the Proprietors remained a matter of dispute so long as they held the patent. The phrase in the patent, "With their and every their appurtenances in as full and ample manner as the same is granted to the said Duke of York", referred only to the land and its appurtenances.¹ The Duke, doubtless, meant to sell only his rights in the soil of New Jersey. Later, however, when New Jersey created ports of entry and departure, the British government interfered, it held that New Jersey had no authority to constitute such ports, for she was under the political sovereignty of Great Britain. In consequence of which the trade of New Jersey was hampered in not having ports of her own.

The Proprietors established a government, providing for a representative legislature with authority to establish and regulate all affairs of the province. The General government was viewed in many quarters as expressive of arbitrary power. Besides establishing a representative legislature the Proprietors appointed a governor, with whom was associated a council of his own selection. Together the governor and council had the usual executive power of colonial governments.²

The townships had enjoyed considerable autonomy; hence they regarded the general government with disfavor and uncertainty also prevailed as to governmental rights of the proprietors.

In 1674 Sir John Berkeley sold his interest in New Jersey to a corporation of Quakers. Two years later, the corporation separated its interests from East New Jersey, and founded Burlington which it made the seat of government. Fenwick, one of the co-pro-

1. N.Y. Acct I 12.

2. Osgood II 174.

prietors established a colony on the west side of the peninsula in 1675, and founded Salem which he ruled with the region surrounding it. The eastern portion of the province continued in the hands of heirs of Carteret until 1680 when it was sold to William Penn and eleven associates, mostly Quakers.¹ East and West Jersey had a separate governor until 1686, when a proprietor and governor of West Jersey was made governor also of East Jersey. Thus it continued until the proprietors of New Jersey surrendered their rights to the crown in 1702.

New Jersey remained under the political influence of New York both having colonies having the same governor until 1738 when she was permanently separated from New York, with a governor, council, and assembly of her own. The political situation of New Jersey was very unfortunate; for during its proprietary government the governors of New York interfered frequently with the political affairs of New Jersey. The Duke insisted that he still claimed certain fiscal rights over New Jersey. His Governors claimed the right to collect the customs in the ports of New colony.² While the two colonies were under one government New York was given every advantage in trade. The creation of ports of entry and departure was opposed. Fortunate, indeed, was the colony when she severed her connections with New York.

1. N.Y. Acct I 337, Osgoods II 191
Doyle English Col. in Amer. IV 307.

Chapter II.

As has been said, the English inherited the friendly relations from the Dutch which the latter had enjoyed with the Indians. Their friendship, however, was embodied in a treaty of amity and commerce which Col. Cartwright negotiated September 24, 1664 with the sachems of the Mohawks and of the Senecas. Which stipulated that the Indians were to have "all such wares and commodities from the English as hitherto they had from the Dutch".¹

The instructions given to the Governors sent over by the English authorities repeatedly charge them to use every opportunity for cultivating Indian friendship, at all times to encourage trade with them, solicit the coming and residence of merchants; and do whatsoever is conducive to building up a prosperous trade.² Acting upon their instructions, the Governors called at convenient places, usually at Albany the Five Nations- Mohawks, Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, and Oneidas- and other nations, to exchange presents, to present grievances, to secure special trade concessions, and to transact other necessary business with the savages. Upon the arrival of a new Governor in the colony, or upon the announcement of the accession of a Sovereign to the British throne, presents were exchanged most liberally, lest the Indians should fear a change of policy in dealing with them. The presents were not distributed to the sachems of the tribes, but to the individuals of the tribes.³

The kinds of presents may have varied from time to time to meet the tastes of the particular Nation, yet a fair representation

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. III 67.

2. Ibid. III 53: 347: 690.

3. Ibid. III 183; IV 1123.

of the articles used to "brighten the covenant chain" between the natives and the colonists, is the following list, which represents the gifts made to the Five Nations August 10, 1710. Besides a live¹ bullock, bread, and other provisions, they were given the following presents:

100 Fuzes	50 Looking glasses
1000 Lbs. of powder in bags	75 Shirts
2500 Flints	70 Kittles
5 Ps Strowds	25 Lbs. Paint
2 onehalf Ps Blankets	500 Bars of lead
2 Duffels	5 Gross tobacco pipes
20 Dozen Knives	150 Lbs. of tobacco".

Similar presents were distributed among other Nations at their conferences.²

To facilitate and regulate trade with the savages a commission of Indian affairs came into being during the administration of Governor Nicolls but sank into inactivity. In 1675 a board was established at Albany with Robert Livingston as its first secretary. The activities of the board were devoted to all matters concerning the Five Nations first, subsequently to other Nations also; and incidentally to all relations with the French along the frontier of New York. It continued without interruption to near the close of the colonial period.³

The conference of August 1864 definitely marks the beginning of the efforts of the English to change an alliance with the Indians into a protectorate. At this assembly the Onondagas and the

1. Doc. Col.Hist. of N.Y. V 222-230.

2. Ibid.

3. Osgood: The American Col. in 17th. Cent. II 419-420.

Cayugas declared that they had given the upper valley of the Susquehanna to New York; and that they wanted to put themselves under the protection of the "Great Sachem Charles who lives on the other side of the lake".¹

At Albany from the early Dutch period, was centered the Indian trade. When it was incorporated in 1686, the management of the Indian trade was entrusted to that city, a most dangerous measure considering all that was involved in the alliance with the Five Nations.² As the trade increased, and the Indians were pushed back westward, or drawn in alliances, other trading posts were established. One of these was Schenectady. This trading station remained weak throughout this whole period, since the necessary troops could not be had to safe guard its inhabitants. In 1694, four years after the destruction of Schenectady, Governor Fletcher writes: "Nothing has given discouragement to the heathen more than the weakness of our forces".³ The lack of troops and inability to secure reenforcements from the neighboring colonies made it necessary at times, to abandon outposts.

The commodities received from the Indians were furs, and peltries,- skins of beaver and otter chiefly; for which the Indians were given in addition to such articles as contained in the list of presents quoted above, liquors and flashy ornaments. The staple articles for Indian trade, however, were duffels, blankets, clothing, shoes, guns, powder, lead and liquors.

There is no exact way to get at the price of the various articles brought to the Indian mart. In 1700 the chiefs of the

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. III 347, Osgood: The Amer. Col. in 17th.
 2. Brodhead II 439. (Cent. II 428.
 3. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 84.

Five Nations came to the Governor, Earl of Bellomont, at Albany, and prayed that there "be a good regulation in the trade, and let us not be wronged and overreached as we have been; but let goods be as cheap as formerly, a fathom [arm's length] of duffels for a beaver skin, a fathom of strowds for a beaver".¹

The amount of the Indian trade is not possible to be stated definitely in pecuniary denominations, nor even in the number of furs and peltries. In 1696 a Reverend Mr. Miller of New York makes an observation on the Indian trade, at Albany where according to his statement it all centered. He says: "Formerly it may have been to the value of 10,000 £ a year, but it is now decayed; by reason of the wars between our Indians and the French, not diverted to any other place. The burdens also of the province have made two or three hundred families move to Pennesylvania. and Maryland chiefly".²

The French were excellent colonists, they mingled freely with the savages; they applied themselves to trade, rather than planting. Furthermore, the French government, to promote trade among the Indians, gave each Frenchman, who married an Indian woman five pistols.³ The Jesuit priests were made to play a double rôle: they brought the Gospel to the heathen to lighten his soul; and they lightened his shoulders of the burden of beaver, by promoting French commercial relations. The blunt Englishman did not hesitate to impugn the motions that actuated the French missionaries.

Frequent complaints were made by the English that the priests "seduced the savages", and that by insinuations and false pretences "decoyed away" many of their Indians and raised a faction in their

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 733.

2. Ibid. IV. 183.

3. Ibid. IV 181.

The first of these is the fact that the
the "new" is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new

The second of these is the fact that the
the "new" is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new

The third of these is the fact that the
the "new" is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new

The fourth of these is the fact that the
the "new" is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new

The fifth of these is the fact that the
the "new" is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new
the old is not a new thing, but a new

Indian castles, by which means the Indian trade was diminished.

To offset the influence of the priest the colonists demanded of the mother country to send out ministers to work among the heathen to teach them the Christian faith for which they seemed so zealous.²

French jealousy and rivalry showed itself very plainly in concocting the false reports sent to the Five Nations; that the Governor of New York would kill and destroy them; he would poison them at the assembly at Albany; the distinction of the Five Nations was calculated by the King of the English.³ Sometimes the French caused other Nations to kill and make war on the Five Nations. Some times they took them to Canada to be instructed in the Christian faith.⁴ Whatever the French did the English tried to counteract, or vice versa,⁵ even in establishing outposts for trading purposes.

Much that has been said about the Indian trade in New York is equally applicable to New Jersey. The commodities exchanged were the same; the method of barter was the same; the same indefiniteness of price and amount of the trade. There are, however, a few differences. New Jersey had no commission of Indian affairs; she was not so near the French and therefore had no French rivalry to contend with. The Indians were not so numerous, nor was the beaver hunting so good as in northern New York and Canada, where the Five Nations got their furs and peltries. Nevertheless, "the Indian fur trade was the staple of the colony".⁶

The fact that the furs were not so plentiful in New Jersey compelled the inhabitants to trade with their neighboring

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 1067.

2. Ibid. VII 418.

3. Ibid. IV 657-658.

4. Ibid. IV 752.

5. Ibid. III 363.

6. Doyle English Col. in Amer. IV 351.

Indians, which they must have done.¹ Thus in 1684 the Duke of York instructs Governor Dongan, that no innovations shall be permitted on the Hudson; and that if the inhabitants of New Jersey have any other way of trading with the Indians, than by the Hudson, he is to use his best endeavors to prevent it, for it was the Duke's purpose to preserve the benefits of the Indian trade to the Inhabitants of New York and no others.² Governor Dongan reported to the Duke that it was not possible to prevent the inhabitants of New Jersey from trading with the Indians in New York, unless a line be drawn from the Hudson to the Delaware, and then persuade the Indians not to go beyond that boundary.³ Such was the Indian trade in New Jersey; meagre as compared with that of her neighbor, but nevertheless important.

2. Conditions affecting Trade.

The chief ports of New York was, of course, New York situated conveniently for intercolonial commerce, on the mouth of the Hudson, with its large harbor. Albany was the second city in importance, an inland port, but no goods could proceed up the river unless duties had been paid thereon at New York.⁴

The sea ports of New Jersey during this period were Perth-Amboy, Burlington, and Salem.

Perth-Amboy which was named from the Earl of Perth,⁵ occupied a strategic position with reference to trade, being twenty-one miles from New York. it was a perpetual menace to the prosperity of its great rival. In the twenty-fifth year of the reign of

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 796.

Ibid. III 348.

2. New Jersey Col. Archives I 475.

3. Ibid III 356 N.J. Arch. I 525.

4. Ibid III 261; 348.

5. New Jersey Archives VI 108.

Charles II, it was made a port of entry.¹ Possibly, however, the law was not carried out, for in February 1687 Governor Dongan suggested that Perth-Amboy be made a port of entry, since no "internal or external customs is paid there".² In August of the same year an order was sent over that it be made a port of entry.³ In November 1697⁴ and February 1698,⁵ the Lords of Trade order that the rights and privileges of trade of New York be not infringed upon. In May the governor of New York issued a proclamation forbidding all vessels from entering Perth-Amboy or any of the ports of East Jersey. In discussing the matter of ports of Entry in New Jersey he refers to the "pretended rights"⁶ of that colony, he would not recognize the sovereign rights of the proprietors in New Jersey. In this same year King William III proclaimed Perth-Amboy a port of entry.⁷

In November of the same year the Earl of Bellomount seized,⁸ the ship Hester riding at anchor in the Harbor of Perth-Amboy laden with pipe-slaves and provisions ready to sail for the Islands of Madeiras,⁹ took her to New York; and condemned her for not entering and clearing at that port.

It was important for the prosperity of New Jersey to have ports of entry and departure. In 1699, the proprietors state that the establishment of Perth-Amboy as a port is the only thing that can make the province of any use to them, or give them any hope of reimbursing their outlays.¹⁰

1. New Jersey Arch. VI 178.

2. Ibid. II 201

3. Ibid. I 540

4. Ibid. II 200.

5. Ibid. II 201.

6. Ibid. II 220-222.

7. Ibid. II 227

8. Ibid. II 255

9. Ibid. II 312.

10. Ibid. II 309.

Two years later, 1701, they propose to surrender New Jersey to the mother-country on condition that Perth-Amboy, and Burlington and Cohanzic in West Jersey be made ports forever.¹

Burlington in West Jersey on the Delaware, was founded in 1676, two years after the separation of the colony into East and West New Jersey, was made a port of entry in 1685 by Charles II.² When New Jersey became a crown colony, Burlington remained a port of entry.

Salem was founded in 1675 by John Fenwick and his followers. It was not made a port until after 1705; for at that date Lord Cornbury observed that "Salem is capable of being made a good place of trade; its harbor is capable of receiving good ships; there are 15 feet of water at low watermark.³ After 1705 we have record of ships entering and clearing there; hence it is quite likely that Salem was created a port of entry about that date.⁴ After the year 1720 Salem becomes of importance as a shipping place.

During the larger part of the colonial period, the conscience of legitimate trade was not so acute as to condemn the practice of issuing letters of marque and reprisal to subjects for seizing enemy's goods on the high seas. More than that, piracy was common, for it is only a bad form of privateering, to which it naturally degenerates.

The Bermudas and Carolinas as well as the Islands of the West Indies were infested with these marauders; nor were New York or New Jersey free from them.⁵ Governor Fletcher of New York was friendly to pirates.⁶ In fact he fitted them out for East India and the Red Sea. He received Capt. Tew, the most notorious of pirates,

1. New Jersey Arch. II 405.

2. Ibid. II 178.

3. Ibid. III 80.

4. Ibid. III 7, 16.

5. Ibid. II 358.

6. Doc. of Col. Hist. N. J. IV 275.

dined with him, appeared publicly with him in his coach, and exchanged presents such as gold watches etc, with him¹. The Earl of Bellomount who succeeded him exposed all of Fletcher's iniquities in this respect, yet in 1700 he forced captured pirates out of the hands of the authorities in New Jersey and turned them loose.²

In consequence of this state of affairs in the sea and the dangers incident thereto, it became necessary for the mother-country, for the safety of her trade, to send over men-of-war to cruise along the coast from New Foundland to Florida, to safeguard her trade from the ravages of the enemy's. At Sandyhook³ was stationed an English man-of-war to guard the coasting trade in that part of the Atlantic.⁴

Voyages across the Atlantic were undertaken in convoys under the protection of an English man-of-war. Since the Bermudas, Carolina's and West Indies were so infested with privateers and pirates, the men-of-war not infrequently escorted the merchant vessels to the tropical ports.

The opportunities afforded by the many harbors of New Jersey and Long Island; the lack of vigilance on the part of the customs officers; and the high duties on goods encourages smuggling.

In fact much of the trade was carried on by pirates, from the Red Sea, and East India.⁵

The attitude of the colonists as regards trade may be said to have been favorable. They realized the fact that their prosperity hinged largely upon trade. For luxuries they had to look

1. N.J.Arch. IV 306.

2. Ibid. II 312.

3. Ibid. XI 10.

4. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 1123.

5. Ibid. IV 303-304.

beyond the confines of their own provinces, notwithstanding the fact that their particular colonies were rich in natural resources. The comforts and as has been said, luxuries, came by exchange of commodities. Not only were the governors instructed to foster trade in every particular, but the colonial assemblies passed laws with this end in view. There were laws for garrisoning outposts; for lessening duties on goods for Indian trade; against harboring privateers and pirates; for regulation of foreign trade in such commodities for instance as pork and beef, for creation and execution of suitable ports of trade; and for increasing the medium of exchange by emitting bills of credit.¹

This attempt to relieve the dearth in currency needs further mention. Various attempts were made to emit paper currency. Had not the British government checked this tendency a greater evil would have been brought upon the country than the colonies desired to correct; even with the British authorities holding the colonists in check in printing bills of credit, the colonies emitted more bills than they could pay or even pay the interest on.² The large trade, which New York had with the West India and other Southern Islands gave her quite a substantial currency.³ But as England kept a balance of trade against New York, the coin the latter received from the Spanish West India trade did not remain long in either of these colonies. In the trade New York maintained with New England-Boston-she expended her coin for European goods. When, however, the Boston merchants returned the coins to buy grain from New York, it

1. N.J.Arch. XV 329-330 XVIII 332-350. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. V 708, 711, 778. Col. Laws of N.Y. II 689, III 134.
2. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VII 204.
3. Ibid. V 556.

had been clipped of one-third its value.¹

In New Jersey the situation was equally deplorable. She had very little direct foreign trade; hence she obtained little coin. The provisions she sold at New York and Philadelphia were paid for in paper currency of that particular colony. The bills of credit from these colonies had only a slightly higher value than her own, of which she had enough such as it was.² The problem of securing a substantial medium of exchange was not solved during their colonial life.

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 1180.

2. N.J. Arch. XV 387.

3. Colonial Trade Other Than Indian.

A) The trade which New York enjoyed during this period with the English American Continental colonies is quite difficult to ascertain. It is, of course, true that she maintained commercial relations with Virginia but it was chiefly with New England, that she traded. In 1678 Governor Andros reported that while he could not give the exact numbers of vessels trading to the several colonies, yet there were but few and not considerable to any colony, except Massachusetts.¹ In another part of the same report he says: "There may lately have been trading to the colony in a year from 10 to 15 vessels of about together 100 tons each, English, New England, and our own build of which 5 small ships and a ketch now belonging to New York, 4 of them built there."²

In December 1681 Governor Andros writes: "At my coming to New York, I found the place, poor, unsettled, and without trade, except a few coasters hardly any went or came beyond the sea ----- Since which by his royal favor greatly increased in people, trade and buildings and other improvements. new towns and settlements lately built and the colony improved in all other advantages beyond any of its neighbors. Navigation is increased at least ten times to what it was, it has plenty of money- hardly seen there before- and all sorts of goods."³

The merchants of Boston had an extensive European trade, consequently they had more of European goods than they could consume. These European goods -- mostly manufactures- were sent in their sloops to New York where European goods were in demand, and

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. III 263.

2. Ibid. III 261.

3. Ibid. III 313.

were exchanged for corn- grains, not flour for they ground the grain into flour and then undersold the New Yorkers in the West India flour market.¹

B) In (1687)? Governor Dongan reported that there were about nine or ten three mast vessels of about eighty or one hundred tons burden, two or three Ketches and barks of about forty tons, and about twenty sloops of twenty or twenty-five tons belonging to the government- all of which traded to England, Holland, and West Indies.²

C) The West India trade must have been considerable ; for in 1699 Governor Bellomont observed that " This has been the worst year that ever was known in New York by reason of the scarcity of sugar, rum, and molasses at the Barbadoes and the other Islands, and of the wines at the Mad^{ci}ras, for from those articles the customs of New York do chiefly arise".³

The words of Col. Quarry, in 1704 shed some light on the temporary slump in the trade of New York, and at the same time point out other sources of trade. His words are " I do know very well that the inhabitants of New York are supposed to be very rich, but in reality they are not, it is true they formerly had a great trade and got abundance of money the last war, when we had a trade with the Spaniards; besides they had a very profitable, though unlawful trade to and from Madagascar; besides the advantage of several privateers and pirates bringing great quantities of money and goods among them- all of which is gone to pay their creditors in England----- Their trade is in effect quite gone, the produce of the country is of little or no value, nor is there any market for it anywhere".⁴

Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 1180.

2. Ibid. III 398.

3. Ibid. IV 600.

4. Ibid. IV 1083, 304.

d) The trade with Holland is indirectly referred to. It is difficult to say what commodities were received from there; but in 1667 Peter Styvesant makes the statement that "camphor, duffels, hatchets and other iron works made at Utrecht"¹ are used in the Indian trade; it is not unreasonable to suppose that what trade there was with the Dutch was in duffels, flannels, etc.

B) The proprietors of New Jersey made provision for a foreign trade from the outset. In 1665 the Governor was instructed to create and appoint ports, harbors, creeks, and other places for loading and unloading goods and merchantize out of ships, boats and other vessels and whatever is conducive to trade of the province.² When New Jersey became a crown colony Governor Cornbury was instructed to levy such duties, and customs on imports and exports as were levied at New York.³

New Jersey had some trade with New England whence she received manufactured goods, as did New York. She also had some West India trade whence she received sugar, rum, and molasses chiefly in return for provisions and horses, which she raised in large numbers.⁴

If New Jersey had any direct European trade it was very inconsiderable. Wines, of course, she obtained for provisions from the Madeira Islands. Her legitimate trade was only a portion of her commerce, for as Doyle observes, "There can be no doubt that a considerable portion of the trade of that colony lay in the purchase of cargoes brought in by pirates, which could be landed more easily in New Jersey than in such places as Boston or New York!"⁵

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. III 164.

2. N.Y. Arch. I 33

3. Ibid. II 514.

4. Ibid. II 262.

5. Doyle: English Col. in Amer. IV 351.

Taking New York and New Jersey together their population¹ had increased from about 10,000 in 1664 to about 50,000 in 1713. It is not possible to compute the exact value of trade. The amount of revenue may shed some light on the volume of trade. In 1699 the trade fell off on account of the scarcity of crops in the West Indies yet the revenue collected at New York, on a duty basis of two percent ad valorem, was £ 5227: and in 1700 it was £ 5400. England imported from New York in 1700 goods valued at £ 27,567.² Manufactures did not play any conspicuous part in commercial relations, though in 1708 a man named John Keble established a pot-ash factory in New Jersey, the product of which was favorably commented upon by merchants in London.³

During the period extending from 1664 to 1713 these two colonies, especially New York, laid the foundation for an extensive and flourishing trade. The Indian trade was maintained and extended; the system of government in each colony was established more firmly and harmoniously; and New York took a considerable part in both West India and British trade.

1. Dpyle: English Colonies in America, V 31.

2. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 347.

3. N.J. Arch. III 304.

Chapter III.

COLONIAL TRADE 1713-1775.

1. Indian Trade.

The close of Queen Anne's War did not seriously affect the Indian trade. The same policy of extending and cementing friendly relations with the Indians by means of presents continued;¹ the same kinds of commodities were exchanged with the French continued, although the treaty of Utrecht attempted to make a harmonious adjustment of Indian friendships and alliances with both the French and the English. Each nation set herself to the task of increasing her Indian trade by means of posts, and alliances.

In pursuance of this purpose the French gradually extended their interests by posts, begun under the name of trading houses and supported by an immense expense of presents. At these places resided men of ability and zeal for acquiring the esteem of the Indians, who with the Jesuits priests magnified their own nation and disparaged the English. Thus they acquired extensive alliances with Western Indians, and among nations who had quantities of furs.² By 1727³ they were active on the Lakes and had built Ft. Mogara in direct defiance of the stipulations of the fifteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht.⁴ Trading posts were built along the shores of the lakes to intercept the Indians from trading with the English.

The English to augment their trade with the savages, passed an act, 1714, to encourage the Indian trade at Albany.⁵ They established posts in the Mohawk valley at Ft. Hunter, Saratoga, and strengthened Schenectady. In 1722 Oswego was made a center of

1) Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. V 436.

2. Ibid. VII 954.

3. Ibid. IX 963.

4. Ibid. IX 964.

5. Ibid. V 390.

trade to accommodate the Western Indians who had been passing through¹ the territory of the Iroquois to trade at Albany. At Oswego a large trade soon sprang up, in 1749 with nine Western nations traded there² who brought to market 1385 packs of furs valued at 21,406 pounds. Oswego remained an important trading station until it fell into the hands of the French.

One of the very difficult problems for the English was to prevent their traders from trading with the French. Although laws were passed against the practice, the traders persisted in violating them; even the commissioners of Indian affairs indulged in this lucrative and illegal form of trade. Through the influence of Governor Burnet a law was passed, 1720, encouraging the Indian trade and prohibiting the selling of Indian goods to the French.³ To further encourage trade with the Far Indians and prohibit trade with Canada a differential tariff was laid on goods thus used. On every piece of strowd- course blanket which was carried to Canada a duty of thirty shillings was levied, while strowds that were taken to the Indian trade on the south side of Lake Ontario only fifteen shillings was levied.⁴

The English could sell their goods to the Indians for one-half what the French could and realize the same profits, naturally they could give the Indians more for their wares. The following is a comparison of the price paid by the Indians for goods at⁵ Orange and at Montreal in 1689. The same prices obtained in 1724.

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. V 686.

2. Ibid. VI 538.

3. Ibid. V 708-711.

4. Ibid. V 778.

5. Ibid. V 729, VI 455.

	At Orange		At Montreal.	
8 Lbs. Powder	1	beaver	4	beavers.
a gun	2	"	5	"
4Lbs. of lead	1	"	3	"
A blanket of red cloth	1	"	2	"
A white blanket	1	"	2	"
Four shirts	1	"	2	"
Six prs. of stockings	1	"	2	" " (2)

One of the reasons why the French could not furnish the goods so cheaply was on account of the difficulties to get them to the places of trade. New York with her Mohawk and Hudson flowing into the Atlantic found it a comparatively easy matter to ship over goods to the very center of Indian trade. The French government however sought to offset this disadvantage by subsidizing Indian trade, thus enabling their traders to buy other wares from the English and sell them to the Indians for what they cost him or for less. An instance in point occurred in 1751 when the French officer at Niagara ordered goods to be sold as cheap or cheaper than it was sold at Oswego, though it should be done with a loss of 3000 livres a year, which loss was to be recompensed by the French treasury.³ Without the goods which the French purchased at Albany they could not have rivalled in the western trade. Without the western trade they could not have obtained and extended their alliance and influence with the Western Indians. Without these alliances, they could not have supported Niagara and other western posts, and obstructed the trade with the Western Indians.⁴

(2) Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IX 408.

³. Ibid. V 729.

⁴. Ibid. VII 16.

1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66
67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77
78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88
89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99
100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110

The following is a list of the names of the members of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, who have been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1880.

The President of the Academy for the year 1880 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1880.

The President of the Academy for the year 1881 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1881.

The President of the Academy for the year 1882 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1882.

The President of the Academy for the year 1883 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1883.

The President of the Academy for the year 1884 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1884.

The President of the Academy for the year 1885 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1885.

The President of the Academy for the year 1886 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1886.

The President of the Academy for the year 1887 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1887.

The President of the Academy for the year 1888 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1888.

The President of the Academy for the year 1889 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1889.

The President of the Academy for the year 1890 is Dr. J. J. Van der Linde, who has been elected to the office of President of the Academy for the year 1890.

By 1725 the English had developed a considerable trade; for in that year Governor Burnet reported that never was more beaver sent home in a year, nor were ever more goods imported from England. This increased commercial activity, he attributes to the "great trade carried on by our people with the Indians upon the side of Lake Ontario.¹ The trade this year being valued at £ 38,307 imported from Great Britain and £ 84,850² exported thence- a strong balance in favor of the colony. The removal of Governor Burnet, however, prevented the destruction of the pernicious trade with the French. It revived, continued, flourished, weakening the Indian interest in the English and extending and strengthening that of the French.³ Thus rivalry continued, until the rivals appealed to arms which resulted in favor of the English.

The sale of liquor to the savages was a very difficult matter to regulate. Before the termination of the French regime, in Canada, it was difficult; for if either nation restricted its sale Indian trade would flow to the one restricting its sale the least, as a result neither the French nor the English prohibited the selling of liquors to the savages.⁴ Another factor that had to be reckoned with both during and after the French occupation of Canada ceased, was the appetite of the savages for liquor. The Western Nations avowed they would not come to trade at such great distances⁵ if they could not exchange at least a part of their ware for rum.

With the surrender of Canada by the French in 1763, the Indian complications were not so involved as previously? In fact

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. V 766.
- Ibid. V 897.
3. Ibid. VII 16.
4. Ibid. IX 954.
5. Ibid. VII 669.

1759 the Indians, especially the Iroquois, saw their folly in trusting to the French, and were willing to return to favor with the English. After the treaty of Paris, their relations grew more cordial culminating in the treaty negotiated at Stanwix on the Mohawk. In this treaty they agreed, 1768, to a division of territory between the Indians on the one side and the English on the other. The boundary here agreed upon extended south-westward from Oswego through Ft. Pitt to the Great Kanawha river.¹ This treaty also contained stipulations regarding commercial relations, stating that the natives should live in peace and security, that trade should flourish, and goods abound, which should be sold cheap. The commercial clauses were not observed by the colonists, since in 1770 the sachems remind them of the promises the colonists have not kept. Their complaints are that they cannot get goods at all, and moreover that they have heard the colonists to have none for themselves.²

After the French and Indians War the authorities in England decided that the regulation of the Indian trade should be left with the colonies. The commission of Indian affairs was to be continued, the forts of Niagara, Detroit, and Michilimacinac, were to be kept and garrisoned, and the rest reduced,

But the colonies did not act together, the commercial interests of one were jeopardized by those of another. So it was for instance with New York and Pennsylvania.³ In 1773 the Earl of Dartmouth wrote to Sir William Johnson: "The advantages of a regular plan of trade are apparent, and the want of it in the present situation is very much to be lamented---- and as the colonies do not

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VIII 135.

2. Ibid. VIII 239.

3. Ibid. VIII 207.

seem disposed to concur in any general regulation for that purpose, I am at a loss to suggest any mode by which this important service can be otherwise provided for than by the interposition of the authority of the Supreme Legislature.¹

In August 1775 the continental Congress represented by delegates from twelve colonies, sent commissioners to Albany to treat with the Indians. It being the desire of the Congress to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce with the savages. They represented the King of England as surrounded by evil counsellors; hence their fortunes would be more secure if they cast in their lot with the colonies.²

The Indian trade of New Jersey was merely an aftermath as compared with the full grown crop reaped by New York. Like the trade of New York it did not materially differ from the previous period; and like New York it enjoyed a prosperous trade during the administration of Governor Burnet, though on a smaller scale.

In 1725 there was a demand for making the Indian trade governmental stating that thereby the abuse of the private trader would be lessened; and that it would prevent the Indians from straggling down among the colonists to breed quarrels among them.³ The troubles from this source were possibly not great, since the number of Indians was small and rapidly decreasing as may be inferred from Governor Belcher's report in 1754. He says: "The Indians are mostly retired back in the wilderness, but very few remaining in this province. I hardly believe one hundred families, and they are in small divisions and remote distances one from another; what there are behave peaceably and in good order".⁴

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VIII 348.

2. Ibid. VIII 616-623.

3. N.J.Arch. V 109.

4. Ibid. VIII Pt. II 85.

Twenty years later Governor Franklin reported: "There are a few families of Indians making in all about fifty or sixty persons, settled on a tract of upwards of 3000 acres---- in Burlington County, purchased for their use by the province----- they are a quiet inoffensive people".¹

Although the number of Indians in the colony was small, yet it is quite probable that the colony enjoyed a larger Indian trade than the number of Indians inhabiting the province would indicate. The Indian trader penetrated the Indian camps for the wares of the savages. In 1758 Governor Bernard in conjunction with the Governor of Pennsylvania held a conference with thirteen nations in which conference the Ohio Indians were represented. In this conference New Jersey was formally discharged from Indian claims.² It

seems from this conference that New Jersey had interests in the Indians beyond her own borders.

1. N.J. Arch. X 447.

2. Ibid. XX 297.

A consideration of the development of colonial manufactures will throw light upon both the nature and kind of imports and exports, as well as on the trade policy pursued by England in dealing with her colonies. The restrictions thrown about the colonial manufacturing industries, shows the selfish interest of the mother-country.

The rise of manufactures was comparatively late in the history of the colonies, and naturally so, but the policy of the mother-country to regard the colonies as existing for her commercial advantage gradually led to an estrangement between the mother and daughter, commercially as well as politically. As a rule, colonial products imported into England paid the same customs duties as the corresponding foreign products. To this rule, there were, however, many exceptions. Likewise commodities exported to the colonies were charged with same export duties, as commodities exported to foreign states, with exceptions.

In 1705 Lord Cornbury writes that the rise of manufactures in New York is due to "the want of wherewithall to make returns for England".¹ In the same report writing of the manufacturing of woolen goods he says that the colonies are entering "upon a trade which I am sure will hurt England in a little time; for I am well informed that upon Long Island and Connecticut they are setting up a woolen manufacture, and I myself have seen Serge made upon Long Island that any man may wear". Hence it was necessity and not choice that impelled the colonists to erect manufactures. It may be mentioned though it is obvious, that the customs duties were

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 711-712.

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also obnoxious and colonial manufacturing would evade them.

In 1708 Caleb Heathcote wrote of New York to the Lords of Trade " They are already so far advanced in their manufactures that three-fourths of the linen and woollen they use is made amongst them, especially the courser sort; and if some speedy and effectual ways are not found to put a stop to it, they will carry it on a great deal further and perhaps in time very much to the prejudice of our manufactures at home".¹ Parliament seems to have acted on this advice

for in 1715 in answers to orders to give all possible discouragement to manufacturing enterprises Governor Hunter wrote:" The people of this town and Albany, which make a great part of the province wear no clothing of their manufacture, but if the letters mentioned in your lordships mean the planters and poorer sort of the country people the compulation is rather less than more----- neither does it consist in my knowledge that ever any home spun was sold in the shops".²

In 1749 Governor Clinton wrote that the people of New York "have their home spun to supply themselves somewhat with necessaries and clothing."³ From this statement it may be inferred that the colonists persisted in manufacturing their own necessaries, even though it was discouraged by the British authorities.

The hat industry seems to have caused considerable contention. It must have sprung up to quite a trade for it is reported that " great quantities" were exported to Spain, Portugal and West Indies.⁴ The beaver hats of the colonists attracted so much attention that in 1731 a company of felters and hatters petition Par-

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 712.

2. Ibid. VI 713-714.

3. Ibid. VI 511.

4. Weeden: Economic and Social Hist. of New England, II 504.

liament to prohibit the exportation of hats from American colonies.¹
In response to this memorial Parliament passed an act, which provided that after 1732 no hats should be put on board a ship or a cart for exportation to Europe or to England, for transportation from one plantation to another, and that no one should make felts or hats but such as had served an apprenticeship nor could a journeyman be employed unless he had served his apprenticeship for seven years, nor could a hat maker employ more than two apprentices at one time.²
The hat industry, however, by its nature remained unimportant.

The mining industry was of far more importance, particularly in New Jersey. The Dutch had discovered copper in New York and in 1715 a ton of copper is reported to have been shipped to Bristol from New York, but it was rare. In New Jersey also there were some copper mines, for in 1721 Mr. Schuyler sent one-hundred and ten³ casks of copper to Holland, from his newly discovered mine. The next year copper was placed on the enumerated list but the quantity produced remained always small.

The iron industry in New York was comparatively unimportant. In 1734 Governor Cosby wrote that " a great many iron mines both of bogg and mountain oar, but as yet no iron works were set up in this province. If any encouragement was given upon the impotting of it in piggs and bars, at least it might be free from duty, it is very probable that in a few years the Nation might be amply supplied from her own plantations".⁴

Likewise little was done in the iron industry in New Jersey until about 1741, although large quantities had previous to this

1. N.J. Arch. V 306.

2. Statutes at Large XVI 305-307.

3. N.J. Arch. V 7.

4. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. I 724.

been discovered. In this year the council and assembly of New Jersey addressed their Governot as follows:" The inhabitants of this and other northern colonies have hitherto made but small advantage therefrom[iron industry] having imported but very inconsiderable quantities either of pig or bar iron into Great Britain or Ireland by reason of the great discouragement they lay under from the high price of labor in the said colonies and the duties by the act of parliament on those commodities imported from His, Majesty's plantations in America".¹ They therefore ask a removal of the duties.

In 1750 Parliament passed an act which provided; That bar iron might be imported free to the port of London and pig iron to any port of England; and that no mill or other engine for rolling or slitting iron, no plating forge to work with a tilt-hammer, nor any furnace for making steel should be set in the colonies, and if erected it was to be regarded as a nuisance.² Some years later, 1757 an act passed providing for the importation of bar iron into any port of England.³ Both these acts proved beneficial to both the colonies and England.

In regard illegal trade it is difficult to get reliable evidence for most of it is "ex parte". Though privateering and piracy may have decreased during the period under consideration, yet it is just as true that smuggling flourished despite the contrary legislation of the British Parliament. When Earl Bellomount, in 1697, arrived at New York he found all corruption and confusion; illegal trading was so common that even the merchants threatened to

1. N.J.Arch. VI.141.

2. Statutes at Large XX 99-L00.

3. Ibid. XXII 42.

mutiny, because of arrests of illegal traders by the Earl. Although an increase in wealth and population, yet a decrease in the revenue actually collected during the administration of Governor Fletcher.¹ Lord Cornbury the successor to the Earl of Bellomount reported that smuggling went on in the province which he could not prevent.

The famous Molasses Act of 1733 was "systematically evaded" as were other navigation acts. There came, however, a change in the administration of colonial affairs. this change came with the close of the Seven Years War. At this time England determined upon, first a stricter execution of the existing laws of trade, and secondly, it was decided to raise a revenue in the colonies for their own protection by means of the Molasses Act.² The colonial system as it existed before 1763 contributed but slightly to the Revolution of 1776. Englands policy after 1763 is too well known to be considered.

Knowing the commodities a people exchange in trade and the number benefited by such trade, it is quite possible to make a fairly correct estimate of the volume of trade of the people. The table, which follows, is compiled from the Documents of Colonial History of New York and from New Jersey Archives.

Year	Population of New York.		
	Total	White	Black.
1723	40564	34393	6171
1731	50242	43040	7202
1737	60437	-----	-----
1749	73448	62756	10692
1771	168007	148124	19883
1774	182247	-----	-----

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. IV 317.

2. Winsor. VI 10-12.

Population of New Jersey.

Year	Total	White	Black.
1726	32,442	29,872	2,581
1737	47, 369	-----	-----
1747	61,383	-----	-----
1754	81,500	80,000	1,500 (?)
1764	100,000	-----	-----
1774	120,000	-----	-----

Some of the above figures doubtless are based on rough estimates of writers of the time; for it is not probable that numbers should be even, as they are, in the last three dates for New Jersey. The decrease in negro population in New Jersey from 1726 to 1754, is hardly likely, yet there may have been no substantial increase in this population for the legislature of New Jersey passed laws against the importation of negro and mulatto slaves.

1. N.J.Arch. XV 30, XVII 334.

Year	1970	1971	1972	1973
1970	1970	1971	1972	1973
1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
1976	1977	1978	1979	1980

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3. Colonial Trade Other Than Indian.

a) The trade of New York and New Jersey continued developing along the same lines as during the period considered between 1664-1713 . During this period, however, Philadelphia, became a commercial rival with New York, and was destined to exert a tremendous influence on the commercial activity of New Jersey. In the north then, the centers of trade are New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. The first two supplied the commercial necessities of New York and New Jersey, besides, indirectly supplying other colonies with commodities.

In so far as colonies produced the same articles or manufactured the same or imported the same articles no intercolonial trade could spring up, unless there was a superabundance in one colony and a deficiency of a particular kind of goods in another. Hence colonial trade developed among those colonies, which either were producers of goods beyond their own needs and in demand elsewhere, or imported largely and in turn exported to other colonies imported commodities. Home Manufactures were not important enough to be reckoned with in inter-colonial trade. In 1774, however, Governor Tryon reported: " The province of New York carries on a considerable trade with British settlements on the continent of North America, supplying some of them with British manufactures and West India¹ goods".

New York maintained an extensive trade with Boston. Later in the period she traded also with the Carolinas, for she exported to England commodities from them. It was with the Islands in the tropics that a lucrative trade was developed and fostered.

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VIII 446.

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Since the trade relations of New Jersey were somewhat extraordinary, it is best to consider them before taking up the West India and European trade. In 1721 New Jersey had few or no ships and was supplied by Philadelphia and New York with foreign goods which places were the outlet for her produce.¹ This statement is corroborated time and again: "It is estimated that about one-fourth of the exportations of New York is the growth of Jersey and that no less of the exportation of Philadelphia is also of the growth of Jersey".² The merchants of New York sent their ships down to the Jerseys to load up the produce of that colony for transportation to foreign markets, since the inhabitants of New Jersey were not able to do it for themselves.³

New Jersey owned some small vessels which plied between her ports and New England ports and some few ventured to the West Indies. At Burlington were cleared during the period from 1726 to 1730 several vessels from Antigua, Barbadoes, Jamaica, and St. Christopher. Amboy had a similar trade in addition to numerous entries from Rhode Island and Boston. It is not likely that New Jersey owned these vessels, but more probable that New York and Boston owned most of them.

New Jersey was rich in grains and stock. In 1774 Governor Franklin reported to the home government as follows: "There are no commodities exported directly from New Jersey to Great Britain, but in general all such articles as are exported from New York and Philadelphia to Great Britain, are in part supplied by New Jersey".⁴

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1. M. J. Arch. V 22.
 2. Ibid. V 87-96.75.
 3. Ibid. V 315.
 4. Ibid. X 442.

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Since New Jersey was so largely supplied with foreign produce by New York and Philadelphia it is scarcely practicable to attempt to ascertain her foreign trade; hence when trade of New York is considered it should be borne in mind that approximately one-fourth of it is shared by New Jersey.

B) The trade of New York with the West Indies varied of course as the mother-country was on good or ill terms with European nations having colonies in the West Indies. In 1715 Governor Hunter reported that the trade of New York was considerably increased because of the late peace.¹ The Lords Commissioners observed in 1721 that the vessels of this province were small and not considerable in numbers, employed only in carrying provisions to the Southern Islands and in coasting trade to the neighboring colonies.² Two years later Mr. Colden gave an account of the trade of New York in which he said that the chief countries with which New York traded were Great Britain West India and other Islands.

The report of Mr. Colden in 1723,³ of Mr. Kenedy in 1737,⁴ and of Governor Tryon in 1774 corroborate and supplement each other in regard to the trade with the various Islands.⁵ The trade of the West Indies was wholly to the advantage of New York, a balance in her favor with every place of trade. The balance was remitted in specie which was so much in demand, in all the colonies. It was also needed to pay the British merchants since England had a balance in her favor.

The trade to Barbadoes was greater than to any of the other Islands. Provisions were carried thither, not only to supply that

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. V 460.

2. Ibid. 601.

3. Ibid. V 685-86.

4. Ibid. VI 127.

5. Ibid. VIII 446-449.

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Island, but also for transportation to Spanish coasts. Returns from Barbadoes were greater than from any other Island, and included rum, sugar, and molasses.¹

To Curaçoa and Jamaica New York sent large quantities of provisions, particularly flour for the Spanish trade. The principal return of these two Islands was Spanish money, besides which Curacao exported cocoa which was again exported to England; Jamaica also returned rum, molasses and sugar.

The exports to Surniam were provisions, lumber and horses; the imports were " nothing besides molasses and a little rum which are consumed in the province." St. Thomas made returns for provisions lumber, and horses in cotton. The returns from the French Islands were cocoa, sugar, and indigo. In supplying the West Indies with provisions New York had only one rival of importance, namely Pennsylvania.²

The trade to Madeira and Teneriffe was considered by the colonists a loss to New York since New York consumed more than the outward cargoes could purchase. The exports to these Islands were wheat, flour, Indian corn, provisions in general, lumber, stoves, and beeswax.

Gibraltar and Minirca imported from New York grain, flour, provisions, of other kinds, lumber, naval stores and rice; exported speci, bills of exchange and salt.

4. The volume of trade which New York carried on with the mother-country cannot be directly ascertained, but it may be ap-

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. V 685-87.
2. Ibid. V 685-87 VIII 446-49.

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proximated. In 1737 the collector of customs at New York reported that the imports from great Britain were, "European and Indian goods, with silk manufactures chiefly". Exports to great Britain were "enumerated¹ goods and other merchandize legally imported". In 1749 Governor Clinton gives practically the same list of commodities exchanged.

In 1774 Governor Tryon stated that, "More than eleven-twelfths of the inhabitants of this province both in the necessary and ornamental parts of their dress are clothed in British manufactures, excepting linen from Ireland, and hats and shoes manufactured here. The same proportion of houses are furnished with British manufactures except cabinet and joiner's work, which is generally made here"² Besides the necessary articles for clothing and furniture there were imported from Great Britain, "large quantities of all kinds of East India goods"²; he estimated the annual imports from Great Britain to be 500,000 sterling.²

The exports to Great Britain according to Governor Tryon in 1774 were produce of New York, pot and pearl ashes, pig and bar iron, peltries, beeswax, masts and spars with timber, lumber of all kinds and ships. Besides her own produce she exported the following produce of the West Indies and Honduras Bay, logwood and other dye-woods and stuffs, sarsaparilla, mahogany, cotton, pimento, and raw hides. From North Carolina New York imported and again exported tar, pitch, and turpentine. The whole exports to Great Britain valued at 160,000 sterling.³

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VI 127.

2. Ibid. VIII 446-447.

3. Ibid. VIII 446-449.

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d) New York maintained a small, yet constant trade with Ireland. The trade was carried on by the Irish ships, which made annual voyages bringing servants linens, sail cloths, and canvas manufactures, and returning with cargoes of flax seed, lumber, iron, rum, sugar, and slaves.¹ In 1774 Governor Tryon wrote that " there is every year a great quantity of flax seed, and lumber and some iron² sent to Ireland, in ships generally belonging to that kingdom.

The British trade policy limited the commercial expansion of the American colonies; in that when ever any article of trade was sufficiently developed in the colonies to yeild considerable profit, the mother-country usually put it upon the "enumerated list" which of course, meant that it must be exported to England. Not only did her trade policay hamper the free developements of the colonial commerce, but the part England played in European politics like wise affected the commercial activities of her American colonies. When Spain or France made war against England, naturally, the West India trade was cut off from that country at war with the mother-country and also in maintaining their neutrality they were under the ban of British legal restrictions.

e) Some trade relations were maintained with Holland. In 1721 Mr. Schuyler shipped 110 casks of copper thither, which was mined in New Jersey.³ The next year copper was placed on the "enumerated list". By false entries whole cargoes of the Dutch goods were imported from Holland, consisting principally in teas and gunpowder. The importations of these articles from Holland was later,

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VI 127, 510, 511.

2. Ibid. VIII 448.

3. N.J. Arch. V 7.

4. Statutes at Large XIV 419.

the occasion of considerable uneasiness, on the part of the British
¹
officials.

With the other North European nations New York did not carry on any regular trade worth the mentioning. Regarding South-eastern Europe however, Governor Tryon in 1774 wrote, "When grain is scarce in Europe there is also a very considerable trade from hence to the Spanish parts in the Bay of Biscay and to the foreign ports in Europe lying to the southward of Cape Finnisterre. To these places are exported wheat, rye, flour, Indian corn and beeswax; and the returns are made in speci and bills of exchange and salt. Sometimes the vessels employed in this trade take in a load of wines and fruit, and call at some outports of England agreeable to law."²

4. The number of vessels and their tonnage with the number of seaman at different periods may reflect a glimmer of light upon the growth and volume of carrying trade of the colony. The following lists shows the number of vessels, tonnage per registry and the number of seamen.

Year	Number of vessels.	Tonnage per registry	Number of Seamen.
³ 1737	53	3215	352
⁴ 1746	99	4913	755
⁵ 1749	157	----	---
⁶ 1762	477	19514	3552
⁶ 1772	709	29132	3374

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. VII 585,666, VIII 487.

2. Ibid VIII 448.

3. Ibid. VI 127.

4. Ibid. VI 393.

5. Ibid. VI 511.

6. Ibid. VIII 446.

The number of vessels owned by New Jersey, as has been said before, was small. The table shows that New York in 1737 had 53 vessels.

According to the report of Governor Dinwiddie both New York and New Jersey had sixty vessels in 1740 engaged in foreign and coasting trade, which shows very few vessels for New Jersey.¹ In 1749 Governor Belcher wrote that this province had twenty vessels with 1500 tons per registry and manned by 160 men, and that the number of vessels was somewhat increased.²

The customs house at New York shows the following imports and exports for the years indicated. The goods that were smuggled in were of course, not recorded.

Year	Imports	Exports ³
1718	27,331	62,966
1719	19,596	56,355
1720	16,836	37,397
1721	15,681	50,788
1722	19,564	57,889
1723	28,518	54,838
1724	21,191	63,020
1725	25,316	70,650
1726	38,307	84,850
1727	31,617	67,373
1728	21,005	78,561

From 1728 a tremendous growth was effected, for in 1774

Governor Tryon valued the "natural produce and staple commodities"

1. N.J. Arch. VI 85

2. Ibid. VII 24.

3. Doc. of Gov. Hist. of N.Y. V 161, 897.

The first part of the report is a summary of the work done during the last year. It is followed by a detailed account of the experiments conducted, and the results obtained. The report concludes with a discussion of the work done, and the conclusions reached.

The second part of the report is a detailed account of the experiments conducted, and the results obtained. It is followed by a discussion of the work done, and the conclusions reached.

Table 1		
Time	Temperature	Pressure
10.0	10.0	10.0
20.0	20.0	20.0
30.0	30.0	30.0
40.0	40.0	40.0
50.0	50.0	50.0
60.0	60.0	60.0
70.0	70.0	70.0
80.0	80.0	80.0
90.0	90.0	90.0
100.0	100.0	100.0
110.0	110.0	110.0
120.0	120.0	120.0
130.0	130.0	130.0
140.0	140.0	140.0
150.0	150.0	150.0
160.0	160.0	160.0
170.0	170.0	170.0
180.0	180.0	180.0
190.0	190.0	190.0
200.0	200.0	200.0

The third part of the report is a detailed account of the experiments conducted, and the results obtained. It is followed by a discussion of the work done, and the conclusions reached.

exported at 400,000 Sterling; the annual imports from Great Britain were 500,000 sterling; and the imports from foreign- not British- ports were valued at 100,000 sterling while the exports to the same were 150,000 sterling.³ It should be recalled that approximately one-fourth of the produce of New Jersey in considering these figures given for New York trade.

Conclusion.

5. In conclusion it is noted that the Indian trade was the utmost importance to the colonies. It carried with it great profits - the keenest stimulus to commercial activity-, it furnished the colonists with commodities in universal demand in Europe, and it was important because it fostered Indian friendships and alliances, which were very necessary for the progress and safety of the colonies.

The agricultural resources of these colonies contributed directly to developing and maintaining the West Indies and other Island trade. These colonies abounding in grains, lumber, and stock supplied the wants of these Islands more, naturally, than did other American colonies. These natural products were consumed in the colony and the rest exported to Great Britain. The influx of tropical produce increased the number of articles for foreign market. More than this, the Island trade was the only source whence specie was drawn. This was a very decided aid in the development of the colonies. It was largely due to the lack of specie- she had practically no foreign trade- that New Jersey did not advance more

1. Doc. of Col. Hist. of N.Y. VIII 449.

2. Ibid. VIII 447.

3. Ibid. VIII 448.

than she did. In the West India trade New York knew only one rival which was Pennsylvania whose location and natural advantages were practically the same.

Neither of these colonies manufactured for foreign trade to any considerable extent. manufactures, however, did exist producing mostly for home consumption, with the possible exception of iron.

From a feeble beginning the trade developed so much in 150 years that the imports amounted to 600,000 sterling and the exports to as much more.

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20. The twentieth part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

21. The twenty-first part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

22. The twenty-second part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

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25. The twenty-fifth part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

26. The twenty-sixth part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

27. The twenty-seventh part is devoted to a study of the United States and the future of the world.

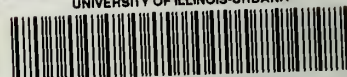
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